

Chemical Biology Methods for Investigating G Protein-Coupled Receptor Signaling

Thomas Huber^{1,*} and Thomas P. Sakmar^{1,2,*}

¹Laboratory of Chemical Biology & Signal Transduction, The Rockefeller University, New York, NY 10065, USA

²Department of Neurobiology, Care Sciences and Society, Division for Neurogeriatrics, Center for Alzheimer Research, Karolinska Institutet, 141 57 Huddinge, Sweden

*Correspondence: hubert@rockefeller.edu (T.H.), sakmar@rockefeller.edu (T.P.S.)

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G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) are targets for a quarter of prescription drugs. Despite recent progress in structural biology of GPCRs, only few key conformational states in the signal transduction process have been elucidated. Agonist ligands frequently display functional selectivity where activated receptors are biased to either G protein- or arrestin-mediated downstream signaling pathways. Selective manipulation of individual steps in the GPCR activation scheme requires precise information about the kinetics of ligand binding and the dynamics of downstream signaling. One approach is to obtain time-resolved information using receptors tagged with fluorescent or structural probes. Recent advances allow for site-specific introduction of genetically encoded unnatural amino acids into expressed GPCRs. We describe how bioorthogonal functional groups on GPCRs enable the mapping of receptor-ligand interactions and how bioorthogonal chemical reactions can be used to introduce fluorescent labels for single-molecule fluorescence applications to study the kinetics and conformational dynamics of GPCR signaling complexes (“signalosomes”).

Seven-transmembrane helical G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) are highly dynamic membrane proteins that transmit extracellular signals across the membrane to activate and mediate several signaling pathways (Huber et al., 2008; Menon et al., 2001). GPCRs play fundamental roles in a wide spectrum of physiological and pathophysiological processes. In the classical paradigm of GPCR signaling, an extracellular ligand triggers ligand-induced conformational changes (Ye et al., 2009, 2010) in the receptor that leads to recruitment of cytosolic heterotrimeric G proteins, which in turn activate enzyme effectors to amplify the signal by generating a large number of cellular second messengers (Katritch and Abagyan, 2011; Steyaert and Kobilka, 2011). Recent advances in crystallography have provided high-resolution structures of a growing number of GPCRs in multiple conformational states, including a G protein-bound complex (Hollenstein et al., 2014; Kobilka and Schertler, 2008; Rasmussen et al., 2011), but there is now a pressing need for additional biophysical and biochemical techniques to achieve a precise understanding of the chemical basis and structural dynamics of receptor activation and allosteric mechanism.

One very active area of research involves the biology of GPCR oligomerization in cell membranes. In cell-based systems, GPCR oligomerization has been studied using resonance energy transfer (RET) assays that measure the proximity of donor and acceptor probes (fluorescent and/or bioluminescent) attached to target receptors (Ciruela et al., 2010). Although RET assays have provided extensive data concerning GPCR oligomerization (Pfleger and Eidne, 2005) and ligand-dependent receptor coupling to cellular proteins, there are a number of inherent limitations in these approaches (Bouvier et al., 2007; James et al., 2006; Salahpour and Masri, 2007). Single-molecule detection (SMD) fluorescence is another approach to visualize membrane

protein oligomers in membrane bilayers (Calebiro et al., 2013; Hern et al., 2010; Kasai et al., 2011; Lin et al., 2014). In principle, single molecule tracking can detect the movement of individual oligomers and monitor association and dissociation events in real time. The recent applications of single-molecule tracking to study GPCRs were transformative because they provided evidence for the existence of oligomers in living cells at essentially physiological expression levels (Calebiro et al., 2013; Hern et al., 2010; Prummer et al., 2006; Snaar-Jagalska et al., 2013; Suzuki et al., 2005). However, the precise functional role of oligomerization, the structural basis for receptor association, and the contributions of membrane lipids to the process remain ill defined in part because of a lack of flexible and robust methods to tag receptors in biological membranes.

Fluorescence techniques are indispensable for monitoring the conformational states of purified receptors (Bockenhauer et al., 2011; Dunham and Farrens, 1999; Gether et al., 1997; Peleg et al., 2001) and receptors in live cells (Calebiro et al., 2013; Hern et al., 2010; Kasai et al., 2011; Kusumi et al., 2010; Lohse et al., 2012; Maurel et al., 2008; Vilardaga et al., 2009). In studies of enzyme catalysis, multicolor SMD fluorescence techniques allow the correlation of conformational dynamics of doubly labeled enzymes to the binding of their labeled substrates (Tinnefeld and Sauer, 2005). SMD approaches can in principle detect both the function and stoichiometry of discrete bimolecular complexes (Ha, 2013).

Transmembrane signaling is an allosteric process because the conformational change induced in the receptor upon ligand binding must be transmitted to the binding site of a cellular transducer protein, such as a G protein or β arrestin, on the opposite side of the membrane (Christopoulos and Kenakin, 2002). Different agonist ligands for the same receptor might be biased for a particular signaling pathway, leading to the

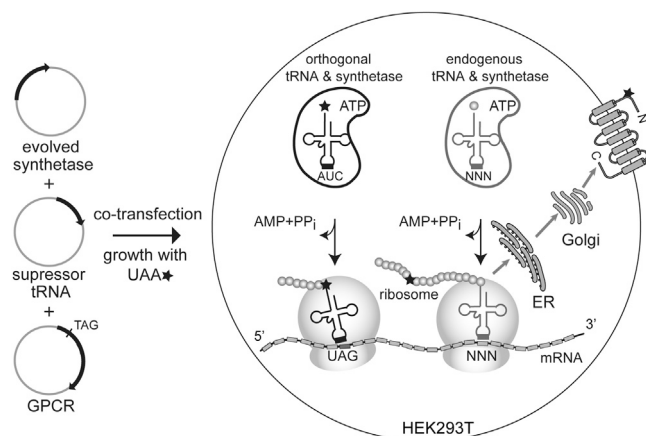


Figure 1. uaa Mutagenesis of GPCRs in Mammalian Cells

Amber stop codon (UAG) suppression technology is based on the presence of an orthogonal suppressor aminoacyl-tRNA. The suppressor tRNA is charged with the uaa in a reaction catalyzed by an engineered orthogonal aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase. Heterologous expression of GPCRs in mammalian cells provides the most reliable approach to guarantee natively posttranslational modifications and function (Sarramegna et al., 2003). HEK293T or HEK293F cells are cotransfected with three different plasmids encoding the evolved synthetase gene, the suppressor tRNA gene, and the gene encoding the GPCR with an in-frame TAG mutation at a desired position. The orthogonal tRNA/synthetase pair from bacteria does not cross-react with endogenous mammalian tRNAs and synthetases, but the ribosome is able to utilize the charged tRNA. Culturing the transfected cells in the presence of the uaa results in protein translation, with suppression of the amber stop codon and site-specific incorporation of the uaa at a desired position to give a full-length protein (adapted from Daggett and Sakmar, 2011).

pharmacological concept of “functional selectivity” (Kenakin and Christopoulos, 2013). A number of models have been proposed to account for ligand bias and functional selectivity. One hypothesis is that biased signaling can be described by multiple signaling-competent receptor conformations that engage in alternative ternary complexes (Rajagopal et al., 2010). An alternative hypothesis is that agonist bias may be predicted by differential conformational changes in the ligand-receptor complex alone (Horst et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2012), but it is generally accepted that the fully active conformation is normally not reached without a G protein- or β arrestin-binding partner (Nygaard et al., 2013). Elucidating the molecular mechanism of receptor allostery and signaling bias requires quantification of the strength of allosteric coupling. This strength is accessible due to the reciprocity principle (Fenton, 2008); i.e., the changes of agonist affinity due to binding of a transducer are equal in magnitude to the changes of the transducer affinity shift due to binding of the agonist. For example, the G protein-dependent shift in agonist affinity correlates with intrinsic agonist activity (Kent et al., 1980), and a similar correlation is found for β arrestin-dependent agonist affinity shifts (Gurevich et al., 1997). Some allosteric interactions exhibit neutral cooperativity (i.e., no observable shift in affinities), but they still show pronounced changes in ligand binding and dissociation kinetics (Christopoulos and Kenakin, 2002). Therefore, it has been argued that experiments to measure ligand dissociation kinetics are superior to study allosteric effects (Avlani et al., 2004; Kostenis and Mohr, 1996; Lazareno and Birdsall, 1995). We suggest that single-molecule fluorescence techniques facilitated by site-

directed fluorescence labeling of GPCRs will be extremely useful to monitor the effects of G protein and β arrestin on ligand binding and dissociation kinetics.

In this review, we describe a transdisciplinary technology platform that addresses the challenges inherent in single-molecule studies of GPCRs. Our focus is on the chemical biology approaches that should enable future quantitative studies of GPCRs in biological membranes.

Amber Codon Suppression in Expressed GPCRs

Fluorescent reporters suitable for SMD fluorescence studies include fluorescent proteins (GFP/RFP), semiconductor nanocrystals (quantum dots), and small organic fluorophores (rhodamine or indocyanine dyes). Site-specific maleimide and methanethiosulfonate Cys chemistries have been used to attach conformation-sensitive probes, like spin labels in case of rhodopsin (Altenbach et al., 2008; Hubbell et al., 2003; Huber and Sakmar, 2008), or fluorescence labels for the β 2-adrenergic receptor (Ghanouni et al., 2001). However, to achieve single-site labeling, this strategy ideally requires the introduction of a Cys residue by site-directed mutagenesis into a highly engineered “Cys-free” receptor. Since GPCRs contain multiple reactive Cys residues, to engineer a satisfactory receptor substrate is not trivial, especially since it is difficult to know a priori which Cys residues are important for function and how mutagenesis might alter receptor properties (Cordomí et al., 2013; Gether et al., 1997; Karnik et al., 1988). Even in cases where “Cys-free” receptors can be prepared and isolated, sulfhydryl chemistry is not bio-orthogonal, and labeling receptors in a cellular context or in crude extracts is not feasible. Therefore, purification of a target receptor is required before thiol derivatization can be attempted.

To avoid targeting Cys residues, one strategy is to use unnatural amino acid (uaa) mutagenesis for site-specific introduction of unique functional groups that are not found in native proteins (Figure 1). Bioorthogonal chemical reactions can then be used to further derivatize the protein with fluorophores and other biophysical probes.

Twenty-five years ago, amber codon suppression (Goodman et al., 1968; Laski et al., 1982) was combined with chemical misacylation of tRNA (Hecht et al., 1978; Heckler et al., 1984) and in vitro protein translation as a new technology for site-specific incorporation of uaas with functional groups different from the 20 “proteinogenic” amino acids (Noren et al., 1989).

Stop codons (UAG, amber; UGA, opal; UAA, ochre) can be used to expand the genetic code since they are uniquely identified by the eukaryotic release factor 1 (eRF1) (Frolova et al., 1994; Song et al., 2000), whereas other codons typically are recognized each by multiple tRNA genes (Geslain and Pan, 2010; Lander et al., 2001; Lavner and Kotlar, 2005; Novoa et al., 2012). The overall efficiency of stop codon suppressor tRNAs is determined by competition with eRF1/eRF3. Amber stop codons are the least affected by eRF1/eRF3 competition (Gubbens et al., 2010), which makes the amber stop codon attractive for genetic encoding of uaas. Moreover, the frequency of the amber stop codon in the complete protein coding genes (CDSs) in *Homo sapiens* is only 23.5%, whereas ochre and opal are used at 29.4% and 47.1%, respectively (see <http://www.kazusa.or.jp/codon>) (Nakamura et al., 2000). Interestingly, some eukaryotic organisms do not use all three stop codons, but

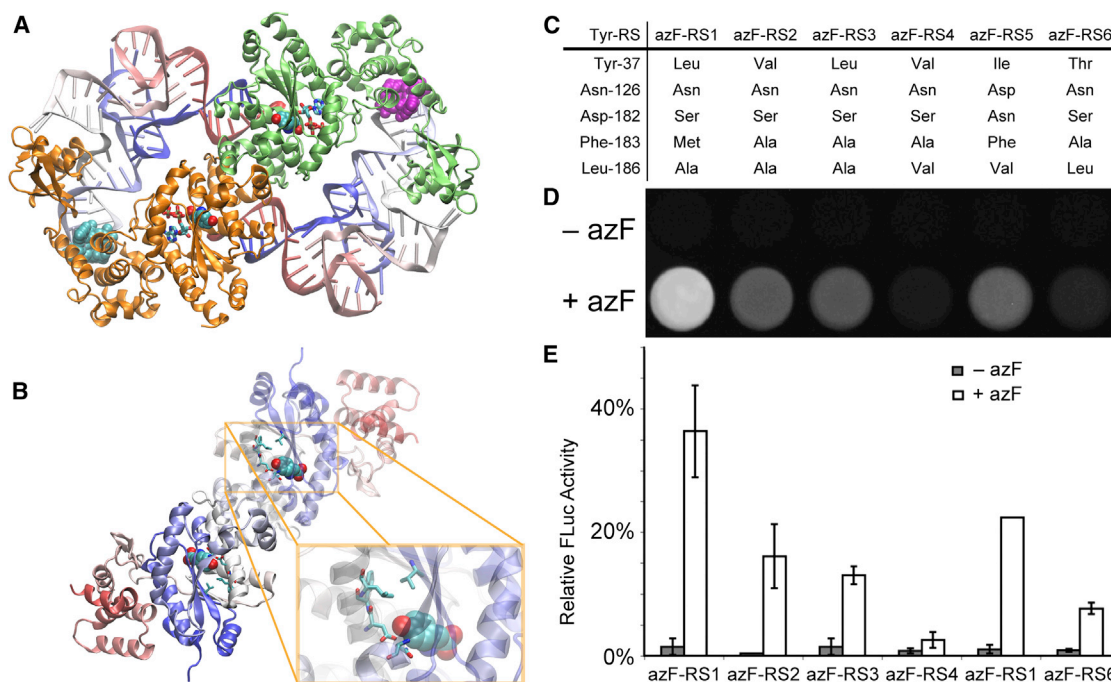


Figure 2. Engineering of Amino Acyl-tRNA Synthetases to Recognize uaa

(A) Crystal structure of *T. thermophilus* Tyr-tRNA synthetase (Tyr-RS) (Yaremchuk et al., 2002) shows class II mode of tRNA recognition in a class I synthetase (Ibba and Soll, 2000).

(B) Crystal structure of *E. coli* Tyr-RS dimer (Kobayashi et al., 2005) with closeup view of Tyr binding site residues engineered to recognize *para*-substituted Phe analogs while rejecting Tyr (Chin et al., 2003).

(C–E) Efficiency and specificity of mutant *E. coli* Tyr-RS variants recognizing *p*-azido-Phe (azF). Amber suppression efficiency in the human HEK293T cell line was evaluated using a luciferase reporter assay, which demonstrated efficient and specific incorporation of azF (Ye et al., 2008, 2009). Error bars represent the standard error of the mean of three replicate experiments.

use UGA as a stop codon and UAA/UAG as codons for Gln. Others use UAA/UAG as stop codons and UGA for Cys (Conard et al., 2012). The unusual amino acid pyrrolysine (Pyl/O) is incorporated in response to the UAG amber codon in certain methanogen archaeobacteria (Srinivasan et al., 2002). Downregulation of eRF1 has been used to increase the efficiency of uaaM (Carnes et al., 2003; Ilegems et al., 2004). The efficiency of translation termination is cell-type dependent; for example, HEK293 cells exhibit about 2% natural amber suppression, which is 10-fold less than Chinese hamster ovary cells (Ilegems et al., 2004). The natural amber suppression in mammalian cells is codon context sensitive (Cassan and Rousset, 2001), which theoretically should affect the efficiency of incorporation of uaa's using the amber codon-suppression strategy. Several cytoplasmic tRNAs have been implicated in natural amber suppression in mammalian cells, and it is likely that Gln (and possibly Leu) residues will be incorporated as a result (Atkins and Gesteland, 2002; Beier and Grimm, 2001). Moreover, aminoglycoside antibiotics lead to substantial (up to 10%) read-through/suppression of amber stop codons in mammalian cells (Burke and Mogg, 1985; Floquet et al., 2012; Malik et al., 2010; Martin et al., 1989; Phillips-Jones et al., 1995).

A method utilizing an engineered archaeobacterial tyrosyl-tRNA/synthetase pair in *E. coli* was reported where the archaeal pair was orthogonal to eubacterial tRNAs and synthetases, but the acylated tRNA is efficiently utilized by the *E. coli* ribosome. The CUA anticodon was introduced in the tRNA to act as an

amber suppressor tRNA. The mutation of the synthetase was guided by crystallographic data (Figure 2) so that the successfully engineered synthetase would recognize the tyrosine analog *O*-methyl-Tyr and reject Tyr as substrate (Wang et al., 2001).

A similar strategy was used to introduce 3-iodo-Tyr by amber codon suppression in mammalian cells. The orthogonal pair tRNA/synthetase pair was a combination of *E. coli* Tyr-RS and *B. stearothermophilus* suppressor tRNA^{Tyr} (Sakamoto et al., 2002). Later, the method was expanded to yeast (*S. cerevisiae*) using the *E. coli* tyrosyl-tRNA/synthetase pair orthogonal to the eukaryotic tRNAs and synthetases. The yeast system enabled extensive genetic selection to specifically and efficiently incorporate five different uaa's (*p*-acetyl-, *p*-benzoyl-, *p*-azido-, *p*-methoxy-, and *p*-iodo-Phe) (Chin et al., 2003).

We built on these findings and optimized the methodology to improve dramatically the amber suppression efficiency by generating a tRNA expression plasmid carrying a chimeric gene of human and *B. stearothermophilus* suppressor tRNA^{Tyr} (Ye et al., 2008). Our chimeric tRNA gene expressed well, formed an orthogonal pair with the *E. coli* Tyr-RS variants, and was efficiently processed and acylated with Tyr and analogs in the human HEK293T cell line (Ye et al., 2008). The biosynthesis of tRNA from our chimeric tRNA gene can be rationalized based on detailed studies of the splicing and processing of the human tRNA^{Tyr} gene (MacPherson and Roy, 1986), which indicate that splicing of the primary transcript precedes processing to trim

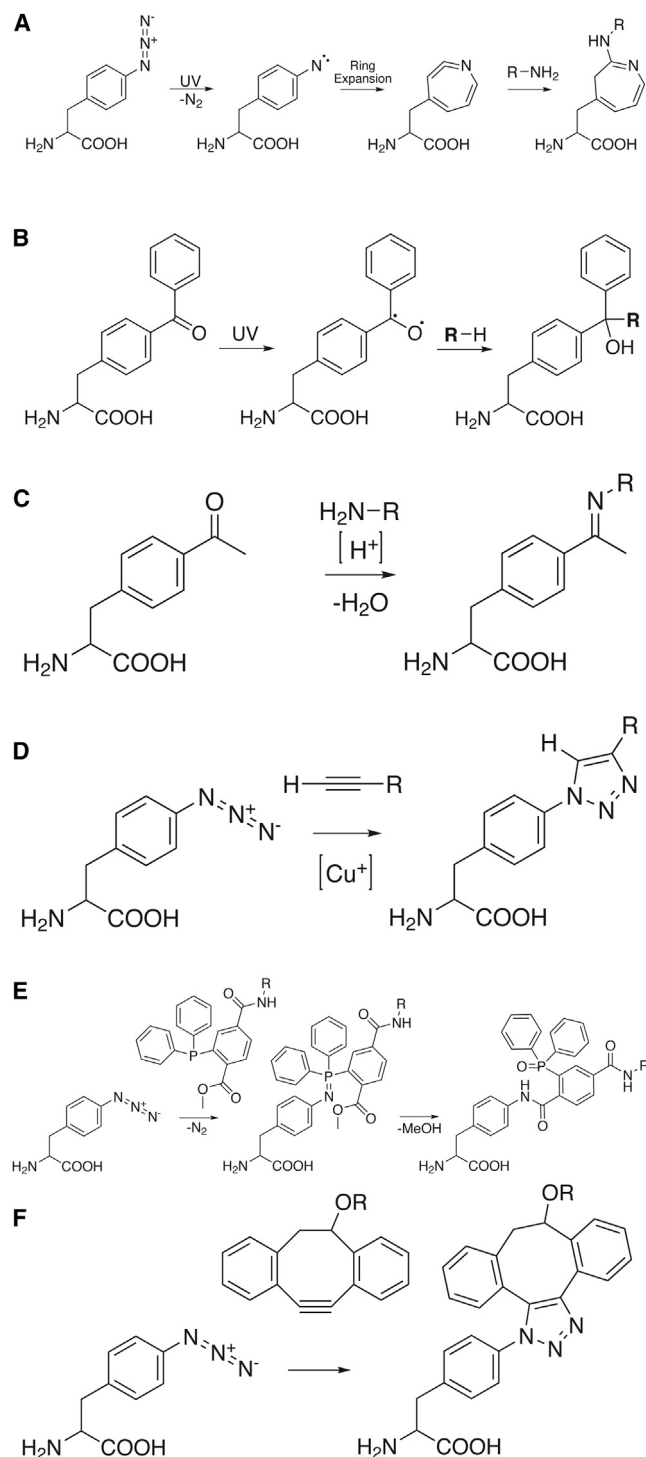


Figure 3. Photocrosslinking and Bioorthogonal Labeling Reactions

- (A) Photocrosslinking reaction with *p*-azido-Phe (azF).
(B) Photocrosslinking reaction with *p*-benzoyl-Phe (BzF).
(C) Oxime and hydrazone ligation reactions of *p*-acetyl-Phe (AcF).
(D) CuAAC of azF with a terminal alkyne reagent results in a 1,2,3-triazole conjugate.
(E) Staudinger-Bertozzi ligation of azF with a phosphine reagent.
(F) SpAAC of azF with a DIBO reagent resulting in a 1,2,3-triazole conjugate.

the 5' and 3' ends of the pre-tRNA and attachment of the CCA sequence on the 3' end (van Tol et al., 1987).

Besides bacteria (*E. coli*), yeast (*S. cerevisiae*), and mammalian cells in culture (Chin, 2014; Liu and Schultz, 2010), uaa mutagenesis methods have been developed for cultured insect cells (*Drosophila melanogaster* Schneider 2 cells) (Mukai et al., 2010), amphibian oocytes (*Xenopus laevis*) (Ye et al., 2013), and two animals, the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* (Greiss and Chin, 2011) and the arthropod *Drosophila melanogaster* (Bianco et al., 2012).

Genetically Encoded uaa's to Facilitate Biophysical and Photochemical Crosslinking Studies of GPCRs

Using the strategy described above, we have been able to incorporate uaa's such as *p*-benzoyl-L-phenylalanine (BzF), *p*-acetyl-L-phenylalanine (AcF), and *p*-azido-L-phenylalanine (azF) into heterologously expressed GPCRs in mammalian cells (Grunbeck et al., 2011, 2012; Huber et al., 2013; Naganathan et al., 2013a, 2013b; Ray-Saha et al., 2014; Tian et al., 2013, 2014; Valentin-Hansen et al., 2014; Ye et al., 2008, 2009).

The photolabile uaa's, BzF and azF, enabled the mapping of ligand-binding sites on chemokine receptors (CXCR4 and CCR5) (Grunbeck et al., 2011, 2012; Ray-Saha et al., 2014) and on the substance P receptor NK1 (Valentin-Hansen et al., 2014). Photochemical crosslinking experiments were carried out in live cells prior to identification of crosslinked products. When crosslinks occur, the site of the linkage on the receptor is known since the photoreactive amino acid was genetically encoded at a specific known site in the primary structure. Crystal structure data or homology models were used to interpret quantitative crosslinking data. Cell-based signaling assays were carried out on engineered receptors in the same cells and under the same conditions used for subsequent crosslinking reactions. The "targeted photocrosslinking" method was also used to map monoclonal antibody (mAb) epitopes by crosslinking GPCR-mAb complexes (Ray-Saha et al., 2014).

UV illumination of aromatic azides, such as azF, forms the highly reactive nitrene that undergoes ring expansion and nucleophile addition, resulting in chemical crosslinks (Bräse et al., 2005) (Figure 3A). The long-wavelength UV light (365 nm) excites the benzophenone group in BzF to a diradicaloid triplet state, which either relaxes back to the benzophenone ground state or reacts with surrounding molecular groups by H abstraction and recombination to a photocrosslinked product (Dormán and Prestwich, 1994) (Figure 3B). A chemical crosslinking method was also reported using a *p*-fluoroacetyl-Phe (Ffact) residue in the receptor that reacts with a nearby Cys residue introduced in a peptide ligand (Coin et al., 2013).

To probe the biology of ion channels, electrophysiology experiments with ionotropic glutamate receptors (iGluR) in *Xenopus* oocytes (Zhu et al., 2014) and HEK293 cells (Klippenstein et al., 2014) have demonstrated that the system for azF and BzF incorporation (Ye et al., 2008, 2009) enables photocrosslinking-based conformational switching of AMPA- and NMDA-type iGluRs.

To study conformational dynamics of rhodopsin photoactivation, the unique infrared vibrational spectrum of the azido group was probed in a series of site-specific azF mutants.

Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR)-difference spectra were measured to show that the electrostatic environments of some residues change very early in the activation process (Ye et al., 2009, 2010). These types of receptor dynamics experiments can be correlated with high-resolution structures of receptor activation intermediates to gain significant insights into the biology of receptor signaling.

Bioorthogonal Labeling Strategies

Different bioorthogonal labeling strategies using AcF or azF have been compared (Huber et al., 2013; Naganathan et al., 2013a, 2013b; Tian et al., 2013, 2014; Ye et al., 2008). Ketone groups incorporated into a variety of proteins and other macromolecules have facilitated novel ligation strategies such as hydrazone and oxime ligation reactions that utilize aminooxy/hydroxylamine ($R = -O-R'$) or hydrazide ($R = -NH-CO-R''$) reagents (Figure 3C). Under approximately physiological conditions, ketones and aldehydes react specifically with hydrazide (or aminooxy) reagents through hydrazone (or oxime) ligation (Bayer et al., 1988; Wang et al., 2003). The observation that aminooxy derivatives have faster labeling kinetics at close to neutral pH as compared with hydrazides is advantageous for protein labeling. These reactions have been used to label proteins at genetically encoded N-terminal aldehyde tags (Shi et al., 2012), enzymatically coupled chemical handles (Chen et al., 2005), engineered cell surface oligosaccharides (Hang and Bertozzi, 2001; Mahal et al., 1997), and with more flexibility at site-specifically incorporated uas (Cornish et al., 1996; de Graaf et al., 2009; Fleissner et al., 2009; Wang and Schultz, 2004; Wang et al., 2003; Ye et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2003).

We observed substantial covalent modification of wild-type rhodopsin and other control proteins that did not contain AcF (Huber et al., 2013; Tian et al., 2014; Ye et al., 2008). This undesired reactivity was caused by cellular oxidation processes that convert some amino acid residues (Arg, Cys, His, Lys, and Pro) to carbonyl derivatives that are reactive toward hydrazide and aminooxy reagents (Ahn et al., 1987; Stadtman and Levine, 2003). This “protein carbonylation” phenomenon severely limits the applicability of ketone-selective bioorthogonal labeling reactions (Grimsrud et al., 2008; Stadtman, 1993). The degree of target-specific background labeling due to protein carbonylation will be roughly proportional to the protein’s molecular mass, with about one reactive carbonyl per each thousand amino acid residues (Huber et al., 2013; Ye et al., 2008).

Advantages of Bioorthogonal Azido Tags

The azido group has been reported to be a superior handle for bioconjugation reactions (Bräse et al., 2005; Debets et al., 2010b; Schilling et al., 2011; van Berkel et al., 2011). Azide provides an alternative bioorthogonal handle that can be incorporated in proteins by uaa mutagenesis. Azides react specifically with phosphines through the Staudinger-Bertozzi ligation (see below) (Kiick et al., 2002; Saxon and Bertozzi, 2000), with alkyne reagents through Cu(I)-catalyzed [3+2] azide-alkyne cycloaddition (CuAAC) (Meldal and Tornøe, 2008; Rostovtsev et al., 2002; Tornøe et al., 2002), with oxanorbornadienes through tandem [3+2] cycloaddition-retro-Diels-Alder (tandem crDA) (van Berkel et al., 2007), or with cyclooctynes through strain-pro-

moted azide-alkyne cycloaddition (SpAAC) (Agard et al., 2004; Debets et al., 2011; Link et al., 2006; Sletten and Bertozzi, 2011).

The discovery of a cell-compatible and selective ligation reaction modeled after the classical Staudinger reaction between an azide and a phosphine inspired the nascent field of bioorthogonal chemical reactions. This reaction, sometimes called Staudinger-Bertozzi ligation, is a highly selective reaction between modified triarylphosphines and azides to form an aza-ylide intermediate that undergoes cyclization followed by hydrolysis to form a stable amide-linked adduct (Köhn and Breinbauer, 2004; Saxon and Bertozzi, 2000; Saxon et al., 2002; Tsao et al., 2005). It has been used to modify cell surface glycans with haptens, epitope tags, and fluorescent probes (Chang et al., 2007; Cohen et al., 2010; Hangauer and Bertozzi, 2008; Kiick et al., 2002; Laughlin and Bertozzi, 2007; Lemieux et al., 2003; Saxon and Bertozzi, 2000). It has also been used to label azido amino acids in proteins in residue-specific (Kiick et al., 2002) or site-specific (Mukai et al., 2010; Tsao et al., 2005) manners. In another study, FLAG phosphine (FLAG is a peptide epitope for a useful well-characterized mAb) was used to label azido-bearing biotin. The FLAG biotin was then used to tag an endogenous biotin acceptor protein (Slavoff et al., 2008).

Despite the susceptibility of phosphines used for the Staudinger ligation to air oxidation (Agard et al., 2004) and their substoichiometric modification of azF in recombinant proteins (Huber et al., 2013; Yanagisawa et al., 2008) and azido sugars (Agard et al., 2006), their compatibility to cell-based applications (Prescher et al., 2004) makes them attractive candidates for further study.

In studies on GPCR labeling, we found that the reaction yields essentially background-free product, consistent with a truly bioorthogonal reaction (Huber et al., 2013). However, despite reports of stoichiometric conjugation of azF in other recombinant proteins with fluorescein-phosphine (Tsao et al., 2005), we found that substoichiometric conjugation to azF rhodopsin is not the result of its relatively slow reaction kinetics, but possibly due to a classical Staudinger reaction instead of the desired Staudinger-Bertozzi ligation. Consistent with our findings, others have reported incomplete modification of azF and a longer azido-containing pyrrolysine analog by Staudinger ligation, which was attributed to the shorter linker length between the backbone and the azide (Yanagisawa et al., 2008).

In order to advance biological applications of novel labeling methods, we developed a strategy to detect modified receptors in live cells. We used the Staudinger ligation to modify azF residues in the chemokine receptor CCR5 with a FLAG peptide-epitope tag (Figure 4). One application of this technique is a semihigh-throughput method to identify sites accessible for site-specific labeling with other reagents like fluorophores. Accessible sites are then used in a preparative method to obtain purified receptors for SMD fluorescence work (Naganathan et al., 2013b). In contrast to alternative methods based on labeling Cys residues, such as the substituted Cys accessibility method (Akabas et al., 1992; Zhu and Casey, 2007), the new method does not display cross-reactivity with other Cys residues that are present in high abundance in the cell.

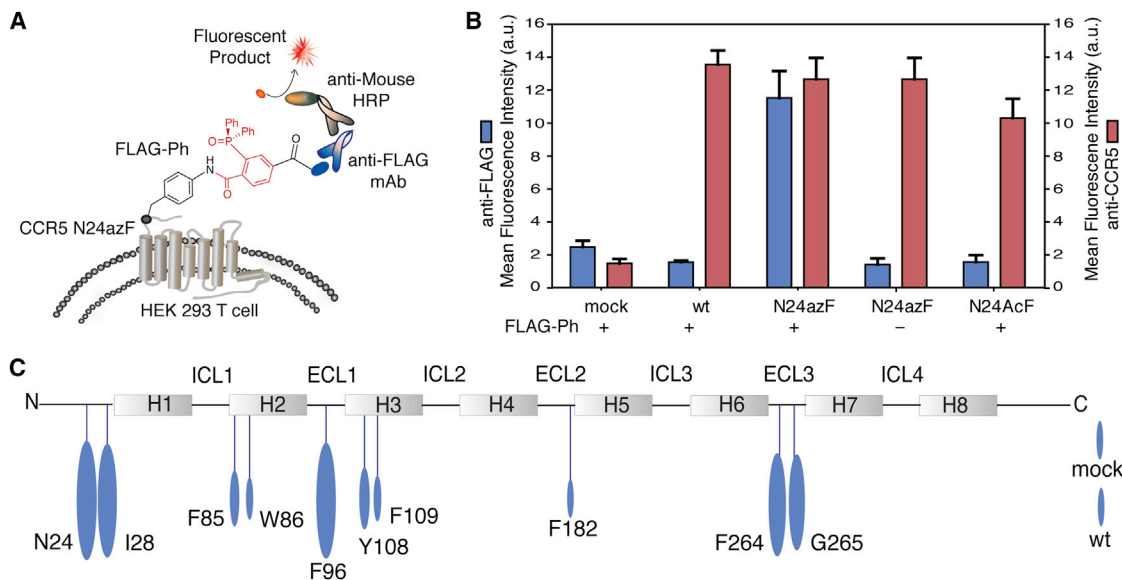


Figure 4. Staudinger-Bertozzi Ligation to Label azF Residues in CCR5

(A) Cell-based ELISA strategy to detect low abundance GPCRs labeled with FLAG-phosphine in a live cell context.

(B) Control experiments with wild-type CCR5, CCR5 with the keto amino acid AcF, and CCR5 with the azido amino acid azF demonstrate that specific labeling of exposed residues is only achieved with azF-containing receptors. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean of three or more replicate experiments.

(C) Accessibility scan of azF residues incorporated in different position in CCR5 indicates that only a fraction of residues in a folded receptor is accessible to the reactive label (Naganathan et al., 2013b).

Bioorthogonal Cycloaddition Reactions

The catalytic action of Cu(I) in the Huisgen 1,3-dipolar azide-alkyne cycloaddition (Huisgen et al., 1967) was reported by two groups (Rostovtsev et al., 2002; Tornøe et al., 2002). The reaction is now commonly called copper-catalyzed [3+2] azide-alkyne cycloaddition (CuAAC) (Figure 3D). A significant disadvantage for protein applications is that the reaction may damage Cys, Met, and His residues in proteins and side reactions can form reactive aldehydes that result in undesired protein adducts, crosslinks, and precipitation. Another problem is that Cu(I) has extremely high affinity for Cys residues (Rubino et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2010), and complete removal of the catalyst is a challenge in protein conjugation reactions. Despite these problems, the CuAAC reaction is very attractive since the terminal alkyne and azide groups each are very small and the resulting triazole linker is rather compact. The CuAAC reaction has all the qualities of a “Click” reaction (Kolb et al., 2001); it is orthogonal to other common reactions and functional groups (Wong and Zimmerman, 2013), and it has made an enormous impact in chemistry (Meldal and Tornøe, 2008), including drug discovery (Devigny et al., 2011; Sakmar, 2011; Thirumurugan et al., 2013).

In the search for alternatives to CuAAC, reactions of azides with cyclooctyne, a ring-strained alkyne, were evaluated (Agard et al., 2004). This reaction is also known as the Wittig reaction, as Wittig and Krebs identified the product, 1-phenyl-4,5-cycloocteno-1,2,3-triazole (Wittig and Krebs, 1961), of an explosive reaction between cyclooctyne and phenyl azide, described several years earlier (Blomquist and Liu, 1953). The term strain-promoted [3+2] azide-alkyne cycloaddition (SpAAC) was coined for this new bioorthogonal bioconjugation reaction, which had superior biocompatibility as compared with CuAAC and higher

reaction efficiency as compared with the Staudinger-Bertozzi reaction (Agard et al., 2006).

Dibenzocyclooctyne (DIBO) derivatives were developed for SpAAC (Ning et al., 2008) based on a report of the spontaneous reaction of phenyl azide with DIBO (Seitz et al., 1969), aza-benzocyclooctynes were synthesized (DIBAC or DBCO) (Debets et al., 2010a), biarylazacyclooctynones (BARACs) were introduced (Jewett et al., 2010), and efficient syntheses of much more hydrophilic bicyclononynes (BCNs) was demonstrated (Dommerholt et al., 2010).

The Background Problem in SpAAC Reactions

Although SpAAC reactions involving cyclooctynes were thought to be biocompatible (Prescher and Bertozzi, 2005) and specific (Sletten and Bertozzi, 2011), the degradation of one cyclooctyne (BARAC) in the presence of thiols (glutathione) has been reported (Jewett et al., 2010), and background reactions with Cys residues in proteins have been attributed to a broad spectrum of cyclooctynes. Therefore, SpAAC is not strictly bioorthogonal due to the reaction of cyclooctynes with Cys residues in a thiol-yne addition reaction (van Geel et al., 2012). However, we demonstrated the general utility of the SpAAC reaction targeting azF residues with DIBO reagents in GPCRs and concluded that it is a satisfactory choice for labeling expressed receptors with fluorophores and other probes (Huber et al., 2013; Naganathan et al., 2013a; Tian et al., 2013, 2014).

The kinetics of the SpAAC reaction of DIBO labeled probes with azF residues in rhodopsin was up to 400-fold faster than similar reactions of model compounds in organic solution (Debets et al., 2011; Ning et al., 2008). This rate enhancement was dependent on the labeling position. A similar effect was

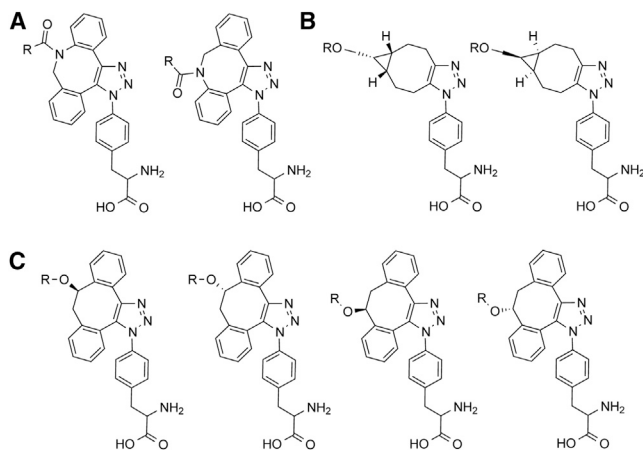


Figure 5. Regioisomeric and Stereoisomeric Forms of SpAAC Conjugates

(A) The reaction of DBCO and azF results in *anti*- and *syn*-regioisomers. (B) Bicyclo[6.1.0]nonyne (BCN) derivatives exist in two forms, *endo* and *exo*. The reaction of *endo*-BCN with azF generates a new chiral center and two diastereomeric reaction products. (C) DIBO conjugated dyes are typically racemic mixtures, and the chiral ring carbon of DIBO determines further enantiomeric forms of the triazole conjugate (*S-anti*, *R-anti*, *S-syn*, and *R-syn*).

described for a related cyclooctyne (DBCO) reaction in bacterially expressed GFP (Reddington et al., 2012). An increased local concentration of the cyclooctyne group is likely due to the lipophilic nature of DIBO (Debets et al., 2011). In fact, our results indicate efficient labeling of azF residues that are likely exposed to the hydrophobic core of the detergent micelles stabilizing the purified receptor preparations. Partitioning of the DIBO moiety into the micelles would lead to increased local concentration available for SpAAC (Tian et al., 2014).

Interestingly, the SpAAC reaction of Alexa488-DIBO with wild-type rhodopsin results in approximately a 1% azF-independent background labeling. This amount of background labeling is substantially less than the amount (10%–30%) observed for AcF-independent background labeling of wild-type rhodopsin with fluorescein-hydrazide (Huber et al., 2013; Tian et al., 2014; Ye et al., 2008). Based on the amount of free Cys in rhodopsin (Blaskovic et al., 2013; Karnik et al., 1988; Mielke et al., 2002; Resek et al., 1993), we estimate that from two to eight Cys residues are potentially reactive toward DIBO. Consequently, a 1% background labeling of wild-type rhodopsin would correspond to a selectivity factor of DIBO for azF over Cys from 200:1 to 800:1, which is satisfactory bioorthogonality for a purified protein system.

While a small degree of background labeling is inconsequential for SMD fluorescence experiments with purified receptors, the abundance of Cys residues in cellular proteins severely limits the applicability of SpAAC for experiments in cells. Cys-mediated labeling of the proteome in the human HeLa cell line was reported (van Geel et al., 2012). One estimate counted 214,000 Cys residues encoded in the mammalian genome (Jones, 2010). Amino acid analysis of mammalian cells shows a Cys content of about 0.26% (Okayasu et al., 1997). The protein content of a single HeLa cell can be estimated to be 247 pg (Bosmann et al., 1968), which would correspond to 3 billion Cys residues per cell

(in proteins). Considering our estimated selectivity factor of DIBO for azide over Cys, even in the best case scenario, at least a few million Cys residues per cell would be labeled as background. Even the best expressing GPCR rarely yields more than about 6 million copies per cell (Sarramegna et al., 2003), which is on the same order of magnitude as the expected Cys-based background labeling. The problem of Cys background is even more aggravated for receptor densities typically desired for SMD fluorescence tracking experiments (about $1 \mu\text{m}^{-2}$) (Calebiro et al., 2013; Hern et al., 2010). Considering the surface area of the plasma membrane (Sommerhage et al., 2008), this density corresponds to only 2,500 receptors per cell. Clearly, additional methods to enhance specificity will be necessary to enable routine site-specific labeling and observation of low abundance proteins directly in cells.

In the meantime, labeled receptors can be used to study the pharmacology of ligand uptake and release reactions. For example, the SpAAC reaction was used to label site specifically and quantitatively azF-tagged rhodopsin with Alexa488-DIBO. The kinetics of ligand uptake and release in labeled receptor could be measured using fluorescence RET between the Alexa488 and the covalently bound ligand, 11-*cis*-retinal, in a membrane-mimetic bicelle system (Tian et al., 2014).

Progress toward Single-Molecule Studies of Bioorthogonally Labeled GPCRs

Currently, there are several commercially available cyclooctynes conjugated to fluorescence dyes suitable for SMD fluorescence experiments. DBCO is also known as DIBAC or ADIBO, depending on the substitution on the amide linker. DIBO conjugates appear to form less unwanted reactions with thiols as compared with BCN or DIBAC (van Geel et al., 2012). On the other hand, BCN is much less hydrophobic than DIBO or DIBAC (Debets et al., 2011), which are problematic in combination with hydrophobic dyes such as Atto647N (Yao et al., 2012). We anticipate that synthesis of fluorescent probes based on these hydrophilic cyclooctynes, optimized linkers and novel fluorophores with additional functionalities, such as triplet state quenchers (Altman et al., 2012), will facilitate practical application of SpAAC to label proteins for SMD fluorescence experiments.

Preparation of Alexa647-DIBO site specifically conjugated to azF-labeled rhodopsin was achieved by labeling of the detergent-solubilized, purified receptor immobilized on an immunoaffinity matrix (Tian et al., 2013). A model of the Alexa647-DIBO-azF-rhodopsin conjugate illustrates the linker length and the relative size of the fluorophore as compared with the receptor (Figures 5 and 6). One can imagine that the long and flexible linker generates uncertainty in the position of the fluorophore, which might be problematic for distance measurements using fluorescence RET. The RET efficiency depends on the distance between the donor and acceptor fluorophores and the orientational factor κ^2 that can assume values from zero to four (Förster, 1948; Stryer and Haugland, 1967). Interestingly, the intuitive solution to shorten the linker length to get a better definition of the dye position may in fact be counterproductive and increase the uncertainty in calculations of the distance from the transfer efficiency due to nonrandom orientations ($\kappa^2 \neq 2/3$) (Sindbert et al., 2011). Computational methods, such

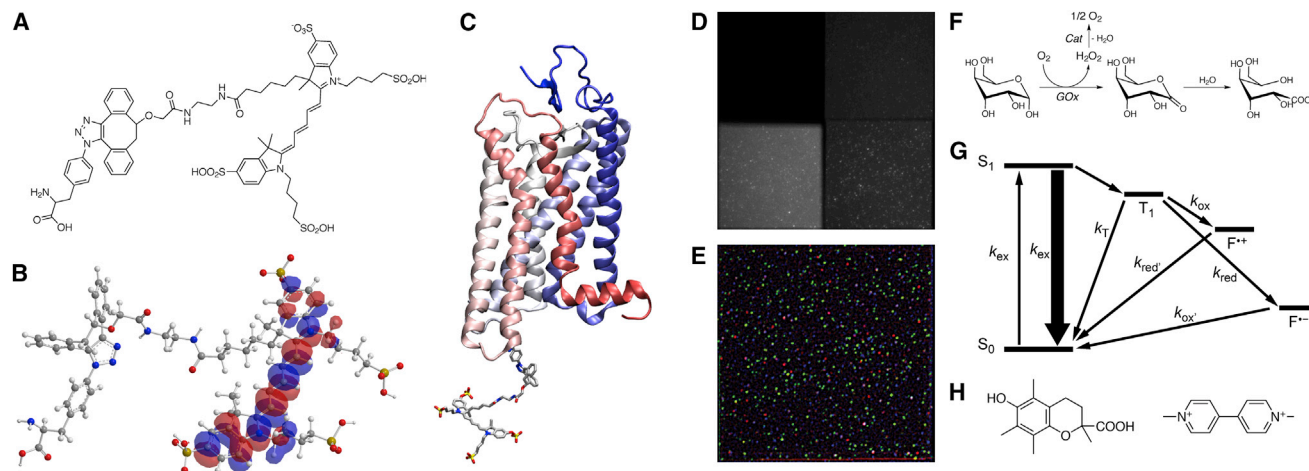


Figure 6. Three Color Single-Molecule Fluorescence Experiments with Alexa-DIBO Labeled azF-rhodopsin

(A) Alexa647 is a typical indocyanine-type fluorophore rendered hydrophilic by multiple sulfonate groups (White et al., 2006). The parent carboxylic acid form is linked via an ethylenediamine linker to carboxymethylated DIBO, shown as the *anti*-triazolyl conjugate with azF.

(B) A 3D conformation of the Alexa647-DIBO-azF conjugate generated by semiempirical quantum mechanics energy optimization. Note the relative orientation of two benzo groups relative to the triazole on the cyclooctene. A representative Hückel molecular orbital is shown to illustrate the conjugation of the indocyanine fluorophore.

(C) Alexa647-DIBO-azF manually modeled in position 144 of rhodopsin.

(D–H) Multicolor single-molecule detection total-internal reflection fluorescence imaging of a mixture of azF-rhodopsin molecules labeled with the rhodamine dye Alexa488-DIBO and the two cyanine dyes, Alexa555-DIBO and Alexa647-DIBO. (D) Raw image obtained with a QuadView image splitting device on an EM-CCD camera with single photon sensitivity with simultaneous 488, 561, and 642 nm laser excitation (Tian et al., 2013).

(E) Pseudocolor image computed from the raw image using elastic channel registration (Arganda-Carreras et al., 2006) and optimal filtering (Sage et al., 2005).

(F) Oxygen is reduced by an enzymatic oxygen scavenger system.

(G) The photophysics of a fluorescence dye may be described by a Jablonski diagram with the ground and first excited singlet states, S_0 and S_1 , and the lowest triplet state, T_1 . The long-lived T_1 state is quenched by molecular oxygen forming highly reactive singlet oxygen, but in presence of an oxygen scavenger, other methods are necessary to deplete the T_1 state, which otherwise is highly susceptible to photobleaching (Vogelsang et al., 2008).

(H) Trolox and methyl viologen form a reducing and oxidizing system that rapidly depletes the T_1 state.

as geometrical accessible volume simulations or molecular dynamics simulations of the position distribution of the dye and the linker dynamics can improve the accuracy of RET-based distance measurements with dyes on longer linkers (Best et al., 2007; Merchant et al., 2007; Muschielok et al., 2008; Schröder et al., 2005; Sindbert et al., 2011).

Strategies to Attach Multiple Labels

The full potential of uaa mutagenesis will be harnessed when it is combined with other protein modifications, such as protein fusion tags for enzymatic labeling tags (SNAP, CLIP, etc.) or autofluorescent proteins (e.g., GFP), classical Cys modification, or native protein ligation (Beck-Sickinger and Budisa, 2012). SNAP and CLIP are fast labeling tags with reactions rates 10^4 – 10^5 $M^{-1} s^{-1}$ (Hinner and Johnsson, 2010), but these tags are 182-residue polypeptides (19.4 kDa) and are typically limited as fusion proteins to the N- or C-terminal parts of a target protein. In case of GPCRs, attaching a tag to the N-terminal tail of the receptor might result in loss of function. For example, the protease-activated receptor 1 (PAR1) is activated by a protease that cleaves its N-terminal segment (Ludeman et al., 2005). Another example is the adhesion GPCRs in which the N-terminal domain undergoes autoproteolytic cleavage or is swapped with other proteins (Araç et al., 2012).

Other polytopic membrane proteins, such as the multidrug resistance protein 1, have both N and C termini located on the cytoplasmic side (Bibi and Béjà, 1994), and protein N- or C-terminal fusion tags would not allow labeling of the extracel-

lular surface. On the other hand, bioorthogonal-labeling reactions utilizing unique chemical handles on uaa enable labeling on virtually any surface-exposed site on an expressed protein. Besides the labeling strategies discussed above, other uaa based on engineered pyrrolysine-tRNA synthetase, such as a BCN derivative of pyrrolysine, enable Diels-Alder cycloaddition reactions with tetrazines (Lang et al., 2012) and SpAAC reactions with azido-containing labels (Borrmann et al., 2012).

In summary, the convergent technology platform described above provides a new approach to study the dynamics of GPCR signalosomes by SMD fluorescence methods. Tethered membrane “chip” systems can be used to study the kinetics of ligand-receptor interactions and receptor dynamics (Figure 7) while other bioorthogonal labeling methods hold promise in addressing the biology of GPCR oligomerization and functional selectivity in live-cell systems.

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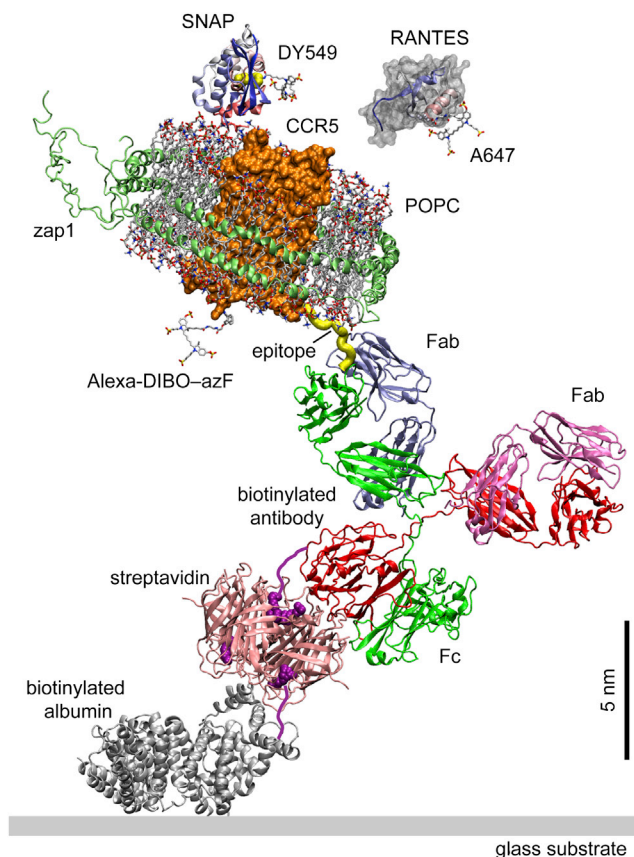


Figure 7. SMF Experiments with GPCR Signalosomes

The conceptual design of a supramolecular tethered assembly to study GPCRs by multicolor SMD-TIRF imaging. Crystal structures of representative proteins, albumin (Protein Data Bank [PDB]: 1GNJ), avidin (PDB: 1AVD), IgG1 (PDB: 1IGY), CCR5 (PDB: 4MSB), human *O*⁶-alkylguanine-DNA alkyltransferase (AGT) (PDB: 1EH6), and AOP-RANTES (PDB: 1B3A), are manually arranged to illustrate how biotinylated albumin is physically adsorbed to the glass surface and is linked by (strept-) avidin to a biotinylated antibody. The antigen-binding fragment (Fab) of the antibody captured the receptor (CCR5) by an engineered C-terminal epitope. CCR5 is embedded in a nanoscale apolipoprotein-bound bilayer (Banerjee et al., 2008; Knepp et al., 2011). TIRF allows efficient excitation of fluorophores in the evanescent wave that extends beyond the glass surface into the aqueous solution (Axelrod et al., 1984). The receptor is labeled with an N-terminal engineered AGT tag (SNAP) (Keppler et al., 2003) and/or with SpAAC modified, genetically encoded azF residues (Alexa-DIBO-azF). Binding and release of fluorescent chemokines (RANTES-A647) can be detected in FRET or two-color single-molecule colocalization imaging experiments (Huber and Sakmar, 2011; Tian et al., 2013).

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